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ABSTRACT

The relationships between labor force behavior, marital status and college attendance decisions of women between the ages of 25 and 65 were investigated through a model, empirically tested using ordinary least squares, from the 1975 survey of adult education conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the National Institute of Education. From the over 16,000 observations provided by the 1975 statistical test, approximately 3% of women between 25 and 65 who were eligible were enrolled in a college or university for degree credit. Results confirmed the hypotheses that women: (1) are less likely to go to college as they begin to approach retirement age; (2) labor force members are more likely to go to college; (3) who have already completed some college are more likely candidates for returning to school; and (4) who are divorced or single are more likely to return to college. (Author)

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ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF WOMEN RETURNING TO SCHOOL

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INTRODUCTION

A recent trend for the American woman is the unprecedented growth in the return to college and other educational programs. Between 1972 and 1977 the number of women over 25 who were enrolled in colleges more than doubled. This contrasts with the more modest growth of 34% for men over 25, a 13% growth for females under 25 and no growth in college attendance for young men.[1] The trend of increased college attendance by adult females appears without prospect of immediate abatement. This contrasts sharply with the expected decline, in the 1980's, of college attendance by younger students. As these trends continue, adult women are becoming a more important component of our college student body.

The purpose of this paper is to apply an economic analysis to the question of women returning to school for degree credit. A "human capital" model is used to make predictions about women's college re-entry decisions. The predictions about women's college re-entry are then tested, using the 1975 Survey of Adult Education. This survey allows an examination of over 15,000 potential female college students throughout the U.S. who were between the ages of 25 and 65. A woman is a potential candidate for college if she has completed high school and does not, yet, have a college degree.

Such a model is useful to educational planners and administrators since it can be used to:

1. Identify characteristics of women who are possible candidates for re-entering college.
2. Tailor programs for the needs of re-entrants to college.
3. Predict future demand by women for college by identifying economic trend factors associated with attendance.

[1] "More People Over 25 are Going to College," Chronicle of Higher Education, April 10, 1978.

The Human Capital Approach

Since the concept was introduced by Schultz (1961) and expanded by Becker (1964), economists have been analyzing education as a form of human capital. Human capital is an asset, like any other, which produces a flow of services to the owner of the asset. That is, just as more machines may increase productivity of the firm, more education may increase the income or happiness of the individual. The analogy is not meant to imply that people are like machines. Rather, the analogy is useful in economic analysis since schooling, as an investment, is a costly one, and may yield benefits to the individual for the rest of her life.

Education is an investment which will be worthwhile to some women and not to others. An investment is worthwhile if the (present discounted value of)[2] the benefits exceed the costs. If it is a worthwhile investment, women will go to college. Of course, many people just enjoy going to school for its own sake. The learning process is its own reward. For these individuals, the investment benefits will be only one component of the total benefits.

There are several difficulties with a human capital approach. First, the costs and benefits of education must be correctly identified. Once identified, costs and benefits must be measured. This is especially difficult in the case of benefits, many of which are not easily quantified. Finally, the time period over which the different benefits occur must be correctly identified.

To identify costs, standard human capital models include not only out-of-pocket expenses, but also foregone opportunities, as costs. Thus, costs include: tuition, fees, supplies and other expenses, and the value of the time spent in traveling, attending classes and studying. For the "typical" college student--

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[2] The present discounted value indicates the value, today, of a flow of benefits in the future. The formula for the present value is:

$$PDV = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{Bn}{(1+i)^n}$$

where Bn is the benefit in year n, N is the length of time the benefits will received and i is the discount rate.

the new high school graduate-- full-time attendance at college precludes four years of full-time earnings. The foregone earnings amount to a substantial sum, and are called the opportunity cost of college attendance. However, many college students are not fresh from high school, and many do not attend college on a full-time basis. For example, in the current sample of women college students between the ages of 25 and 65, less than 20% of the women considered schooling as their major pursuit. Rather, over 70% of adult female college students consider themselves as housewives or as workers, primarily, and only secondarily as students. The opportunity cost of the adult students' time is more difficult to assess.

Benefits from college attendance include: increased wages,[3] improved job opportunities, greater efficiency as a mother and homemaker,[4] greater efficiency as a consumer,[5] improved self-confidence and other benefits. Again, many of these factors are difficult to quantify. Also, the time frame of benefits depends on the women's labor force decisions, the number and age of children, marital status and other factors.

Perhaps because of the difficulty in measuring both the costs and the benefits accruing to women returning to school, many researchers have concentrated, instead, on the returns to college for new high school students. One important exception is the work of Bishop and Van Dyk (1977). These authors studied the college attendance patterns of married men and women 25 years and older.

The current paper follows an analysis similar to the one used by Bishop and Van Dyk. Our analysis differs, however, in several ways. In this paper, we concentrate on college enrollment decisions of women only. Also, in the current

[3]For example, see Becker (1964) or Hanoch (1967).

[4]For example, see Grossman (1973) or Liebowitz (1974).

[5]For example, see Michael (1973).

analysis, we explore the relationships between marital status and marital stability and college attendance by women. In this paper, we emphasize the relationship between labor force attachments by women and their decision to return to college. Finally, the current analysis is tested using more current data-- from the 1975 Current Population Series. This data is used because it is the most current data available with detailed information about school attendance for individual women.

THE MODEL

In the current model, variables have been selected which are thought to be associated with costs or benefits facing a woman contemplating going back to school. Of course, the model is limited by the availability of information. Generally, any factor which raises the cost of going to college will discourage some women from going back to school; any factor which raises the benefits of college will encourage some women to go to school; and any factor associated with lengthening the time the benefits can accrue will encourage some women to go to school. More specifically, the model to be tested is:

(1) COLL = f (TUITION, INCOME, LABOR FORCE STATUS, PROFESSION, MARITAL STATUS, PRIOR EDUCATION, AGE, RACE, URBAN).

and its hypothesized effect on college attendance by women 25 and over. The dependent variable is dichotomous: it equals one for women who went to college and zero for women who did not go to college. Below is a description of each independent variable.

The first variable in the model is price, measured as the average tuition at public colleges and universities in the state where the woman resides. In the model, it is assumed that for each high school graduate, there is some (public) college to which she could gain admission. Other things being equal, states with low tuition encourage college attendance. Bishop and Van Dyk believe that adults are more sensitive to tuition levels than 18 to 22 year old. Their study confirmed their hypothesis that tuition elasticities are higher for adults. In the current analysis, we test whether variations in tuition levels will have

a greater impact on college attendance than in similar studies performed with a younger sample.

The effect of family income on school attendance is not as clear. Generally, higher family income indicates greater ability-to-pay. But, given the massive infusion of federal funds to aid college students since 1968,[6] income is not expected to be as important a factor as before. In fact, in a study performed using aggregate data for all eligible students in 1976, the authors found no statistical impact of family income on college attendance.[7] A similar finding, of no effect of family income on college attendance, in the current analysis would give further support for the claim that federal aid programs have eliminated income barriers to some form of higher education. Income may, however, affect the type of college the woman chooses.

The increase in re-entry of women to college has occurred concurrently with a shift in labor force patterns of women; women are becoming a larger and more important component of our labor force. Forty years ago, the young woman who left the labor force to marry and raise a family rarely returned to work. Today, married women are far more likely to maintain continuous labor force participation, or, if they have left, to re-enter the labor force and remain there until retirement.[8] Further, women are more likely to remain single and, if they marry, are more likely to experience a divorce during their potential working years.

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[6] Educational Opportunity Grants were intiated in 1968. By 1976, these grants reached an annual level of over $1.1 billion. All other student assistance for higher education increased from $336 million in 1968 to about $1.3 billion in 1976. Source: Digest of Education Statistics (1977-1978).

[7] See for example, Davidson and Corman (1980).

[8] Source: Juanita Kreps, Sex in the Marketplace: American Women at Work, Policy Studies in Employment and Welfare No. 11, The Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.

The labor force information in this analysis is useful in several ways. First, it is believed that women intending to have strong labor force attachments in the near future will benefit greatly from going to college. Many studies have shown that individuals with college degrees earn more than those with less education.[9] This is the most quantifiable economic benefit from college. The longer a woman remains in the labor force, the greater her lifetime pecuniary benefits will be.

Since information on the intended future labor force attachment of women was not available, inferences must be made on future work intentions based on current work patterns. Here, the inference is that women who currently have reasonably strong labor force attachments will be the most likely to work in the future. The hypothesis is that women with reasonably strong current labor force participation will be most likely to go to college, since they will have the most to gain.

Labor force information is also useful in assessing the opportunity cost of the woman's time. An implicit assumption, here, is that women first decide how many hours to work, if at all, and then decide whether or not to go to college. This simplifying assumption is made to facilitate the analysis, since a simultaneous equation approach could become unwieldy, and overtax the limited data available. Since the majority of women in college stated that college was not their primary activity, if a sequence of decisions does occur, it is reasonable to place the work decision first.

The opportunity cost of the time spent in college will be, to some extent, a function of the amount of time available. Women who work many hours a week have little time for home production, child care and leisure. Thus, women who work many hours must give up more valuable hours than women who work less. For this

[9] See footnote 3.

reason, fewer women who work many hours would be expected to go to college, since their opportunity cost of time would be greater.

So far, the effect of labor force participation on college attendance pulls in two directions. Women with weak labor force attachments are unlikely college candidates, yet women who work many hours are also unlikely college candidates, either. Therefore, the women who are most likely to go to school are those who are active members of the labor force but do not work long hours. Women who work at least half-time and up to to full-time are hypothesized to be the most likely to go to school. Women who work less than half-time or who work more than full-time (over 40 hours) are less likely to go to college.

In terms of professions, women who are already in professional, managerial and administrative jobs will have the most to gain from a college education, since they are already in a position to utilize the skills they acquire in college. Also, these women are more likely to receive tuition reimbursement from their employers and therefore incur lower costs.

The increased incidence of marital dissolution has had a large impact on the current generation of adult women. Divorce is often an unexpected disruption in the woman's life, which affects her attitude toward labor force participation. Married women not in the labor force usually consider themselves full-time homemakers. After marital dissolution, however, the need to work full-time at home may not be as great since there is no longer a husband to care for. For the same reason of lower opportunity costs, single women will be more likely to go to college. For all women, whether in the labor force or not, divorce poses a large financial strain on the family. Two households are more expensive than one. Thus, many women return to work after divorce because of economic necessity, and women in the labor force are apt to strengthen their attachments. Stronger labor force

attachments increase the potential pecuniary benefits from college. For these reasons, women in the process of, or women who have experienced divorce are more likely to return to college.

All of the women in the current sample have completed at least twelve years of schooling but less than sixteen. Are the women who have completed some college more likely to return to school (or continue their schooling)? Human capital analysis would say yes. College is an investment which exhibits certain "indivisibilities". For many jobs, a college degree is recommended or required, and some college is not viewed very differently than no college at all. The marginal benefits for the last year of college are considerably greater than the value of the first year. Since the benefit of finishing college is greater than the benefit of starting college, women who bring some college credits to school with them have more to gain from the schooling.

Also, women with some college will incur lower costs. Not only will less schooling be required, but women who have gone to college before have already acquired study skills which can be applied to their new schooling situations. New college entrants will have to acquire college study skills for the first time.

The age variable relates to the length of time the women will have to capture the benefits from their education. For women in their retirement years, there is most likely little, in the way of pecuniary reward, to be gained from college. For this reason, we do not include women over 65 in the sample. For the women in the sample, the younger they are, the more likely they will be to go to college, other things equal.

One of the "other things" to be held constant is the existence of young children. Bishop and Van Dyk found the existence of pre-school children to be

a deterrent to women 25 and over attending school. The opportunity cost argument is consistent with this finding. Unfortunately, we cannot ascertain whether there are pre-schoolers in the house in the current sample. Rather, we measure the number of children 18 and under. This variable is strongly correlated with age. Because of the multicollinearity problem, we choose to eliminate this variable from the analysis.

During the 1970's, great strides were made toward equal opportunities for minority groups. The college attendance rate of non-whites in the traditional age group increased significantly. For older students, we would also expect an increase in attendance by non-whites.

The final variable in the equation is the type of area the woman lives in:urban, suburban or rural. Women in cities are believed to have greater access to college programs and thus be more likely to attend school.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

Table I gives a list of all of the variables included in the empirical analysis. For each variable, its description and mean value are given. Mean values are shown separately, as well, for women who were enrolled in school and for women who were not enrolled in school. The dependent variable is dichotomous: it has a value of one if the woman was enrolled in a college program for degree credit and a value of zero otherwise. Approximately 2.7% of the women in the sample were enrolled in college. The sample size of valid observations is 17,739.

Using a descriptive approach, the data confirms the hypotheses made previously. Women who go to college are more likely to be employed than women not in college. If working, college students tend to work less than full-time, and are more likely to hold professional jobs than non-students. Adult female college students are more likely to be separated or divorced than non-students.

and are more likely to have more prior education. More female college students are nonwhite, compared to the general population and these women are more likely to live in an SMSA. The average family income of women college students is higher than non-students, and they are more likely to go to school in states with tuition levels.

Using the descriptive approach by itself may be misleading, because it does not control for the interrelationships of the independent variables. For example, labor force participation varies with marital status. Single women are more often in the labor force, and working longer hours. Looking at the relationship between marital status and college reveals a positive relationship between percent single and percent in schoo. It is possible, however, that this could be accounted for by the relationship between labor force participation and schooling. To control for the interrelationships between the independent variables, the model is tested using a multivariate approach. A multivariate approach allows the researcher to examine partial effects of each of the independent variables while accounting for the effects of the other independent variables.

The model is tested using an ordinary least squares (OLS) approach. There are a number of statistical difficulties encountered when using OLS to predict a dichotomous dependent variable. In the current analysis, the author selected OLS because of feasibility and ease of interpretation, despite statistical difficulties. For a discussion of the statistical issues, see the appendix.

Regression results are presented in Table 2. Regressions were run separately for women in the labor force, for women not in the labor force and for all women together. In all models, the dependent variable has a value of if the woman was enrolled in college for degree credit. Coefficients can be interpreted as

the increase (or decrease) in the conditional probability that the woman will return to college with a one unit increase in the independent variable.

Independent variables fall into two categories: continuous variables and "dummies". Continuous variables are: tuition, income, prior education and age.The coefficient on tuition, for example, indicates the change in the probability that a woman will go to college for each $1 increase in the average public tuition in the state. Thus, examining model 3, a $100 increase in tuition will lower the probability that a non-working woman will go to college by .26%.

Dummy variables are categorical in nature; for example, marital status falls into three categories: never married, previously married or currently married. All women in the sample fall into one of the three categories. Coefficients on dummy variables receive a slightly different interpretation. All three possibilities cannot appear in the equation. In this example, we excluded married women. The coefficient on never married, in equation one, can be interpreted as the addition in the probability of a woman going to college if she is single rather than married; in this case, a single woman has a 2.8% greater chance of going to college than a married woman. And, a woman who is separated, widowed or divorced has a 1.8% greater chance of going to college than a married woman.

Again, the basic hypotheses of the model are confirmed. Women who have labor force attachments are more likely to go to school than women who do not have labor force attachments. However, women who work long hours are not likely to go to school. Single women and previously married women are more likely to go to college. Urban women, non-whites and younger women are more likely to go to college. Women with some college are more likely to return

to school or to continue their education. Women in professional occupations are more likely to go to college.

Two variables which yield interesting results are income and tuition. After accounting for labor force participation, family income is not found to be an important factor whether women 25 and over go to college. Tuition is found to be an important factor in the predicting whether women not in the labor force will go to school, but it is not an important factor for women in the labor force. One possibility is that many employers finance the education of their employees. Thus, the working women who go to school do not pay their own tuition. Another possibility is that the opportunity cost component is the most relevant cost to women who work.

DISCUSSION

The empirical analysis confirms the hypotheses implied by a human capital approach, and indicates which factors seem to be the most important to women contemplating returning to school. These results lead to implications for recruitment of adult female students and for the design of programs suitable for women returning to school. Also, the results give some indication of how to predict future trends.

Recruitment of Students

The analysis was used to predict whether a woman would return to school rather than which types of schools women would attend. Women most likely to return to school are young, single or divorced, have already re-entered the labor force (if they have left) and these women have already completed some college. The working women may have already entered into professional positions.

In terms of locating potential students, two types of organizations come to mind. One type is either the employer or professional

associations of working women. A second type of organization would be religious, civic or counselling groups which are helping single parents, recent divorcees and/or women who are contemplating beginning a dual career of working and homemaking. Also, minority women's groups could be a source of women college students.

Design of Programs

Since many of the women returning to school will already be homemakers and will already be labor force members, programs should be flexible to allow women to enroll part-time. Also, since many women work during the day or are at home with children, programs which offer courses evenings or on weekends will be helpful to the adult female students. Since time is such a scarce resource for adult women students, classes could be dispersed geographically to reduce travel required by the students.

In terms of financial arrangements, our results indicate that family income is not a crucial factor to women returning to school, and women already in the labor force are not sensitive to overall tuition levels in deciding whether or not to go to school. But, women not currently working do take tuition levels into account when deciding whether or not to go to school. One possible suggestion for college programs is that schools extend financial aid benefits, whenever possible, to part-time students in order to include women returning to school.

A strong predictor of return to (or continuation of) college is prior education. Many women returning to school bring college credits with them. College programs which are flexible in evaluating college transcripts for transfer credit, especially in the case of long time lapses, will encourage women to return to school.

Since many women have been out of school for a number of years, high school transcripts may be difficult to obtain. Also, many women have not taken tests in years. Poor scores on standardized admissions tests for these women may be an indicator of rustiness rather than low ability. For these women, different admission standards seem appropriate.

Counselling needs for women returning to school will be different than for younger students. First, these women will need more time and help in re-developing their study skills. Second, women returning to school are likely to be going through turbulent times in their lives: they may be recent re-entrants in the labor force and may be recently separated or divorced.

Future Predictions

The growth of college enrollment rates for women 25 and over depends on the continued growth of women's labor force participation and on the future trends in marital instability. As more women continue to re-enter the labor force or to upgrade their occupations within the labor force, the growth of adult women's college enrollment rates will continue.

However, another important factor in predicting future enrollment trends indicates a pull for declining enrollment rates. College enrollment rates depend on the age distribution. For the adult population, a younger age distribution is associated with a higher enrollment rate. The post-war baby boom, responsible for the leap in the size of the cohort of eligible traditional college students in the 1960's, also provided a large number of younger adult students in the 1970's. As our adult population becomes relatively older, adult college enrollment rates will decline. The loss in the traditional student cohort will begin to be felt in the older student cohort as well.

TABLE I

VARIABLES IN THE ANALYSIS

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION	MEAN VALUES ALL WOMEN	COLLEGE STUDENTS	NON STUDENTS
TUITION	Average tuition at public colleges and universities in the state where the woman resides.	$500.52	$467.44	$501.49
INCOME	Total family income	$14,988	$15,390	$14,977
PART TIME	1 if the woman worked from 5 up to 30 hours per week. Otherwise 0.	10.86%	15.04%	10.74%
FULL TIME	1 if the woman worked 30 hours per week or more. Otherwise 0.	36.93%	41.76%	36.80%
NOT WORKING	1 if the woman was not in the labor force, was unemployed or worked fewer than 5 hours per week.	52.21%	43.20%	52.46%
PROFESS-IONAL	For women in the labor force, 1 if the woman worked in a professional or managerial occupation. Otherwise 0.	16.20%	31.32%	15.70%
NONPRO-FESSIONAL	For women in the labor force, 1 if the woman worked in sales, clerical, craft, operative, labor or service occupations. Otherwise 0.	83.8%	68.68%	84.30%

TABLE I

VARIABLES IN THE ANALYSIS

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION	MEAN VALUES		
		ALL WOMEN	COLLEGE STUDENTS	NON STUDENTS
NEVER MARRIED	1 if the woman was never married. Otherwise 0.	5.8%	12.7%	5.6%
EXMARRIED	1 if the woman is separated, divorced or widowed. Otherwise 0.	16.1%	22.5%	15.9%
MARRIED	1 if the woman is married.	78.1%	64.8%	78.5%
PRIOR MARRIED	Number of years of schooling.	12.45 yrs.	13.48yrs.	12.42 yrs.
WHITE	1 if white, otherwise 0.	91.3%	85.4%	91.5%
NONWHITE	1 if nonwhite, otherwise 0.	8.7%	14.6%	8.5%
CITY	1 if the woman lives in central city of SMSA, otherwise 0.	28.0%	34.7%	27.8%
SUBURBAN	1 if woman lives in SMSA, outside of central city, otherwise 0.	43.2%	46.8%	43.1%
RURAL	1 if the woman does not live in central city. Otherwise, 0.	28.7%	18.6%	29.0%

TABLE 2

REGRESSION RESULTS

VARIABLE	Model 1 All women Coefficient	t-value	Model 2 Women in Labor Force Coefficient	t-value	Model 3 Women not in Labor Force Coefficient	t-value
Intercept	-.43	-20.95	-.45	-13.3	-.402	-15.24
Tuition	-7.9E-6	-1.09	1.15E-5	1.02	-2.6E-5	-2.85
Income	1.22E-7	.65	2.207E-7	.72	-1.92E-8	-.08
Part-Time	.014	3.28	.021	2.24		
Full-Time	.0028	.98	.011	1.28		
Never-Married	.028	4.94	.017	2.32	.053	5.25
ExMarried	.018	4.66	.013	2.41	.027	4.73
Prior Education	.037	25.69	.037	16.06	.036	19.39
Age	-.0011	-9.49	-.0011	-5.75	-.0011	-8.40
Nonwhite	.0088	1.88	.0068	1.02	.0090	1.35
City	.0072	2.06	.0063	1.15	.0073	1.63
Suburban	.0065	2.11	.0087	1.77	.0048	1.23
Professional	-----	-----	.022	3.88		
N	16,330		7748		8582	
College	2.8%		3.3%		2.4%	
F	86.60		33.90		63.51	
R^2	.054		.050		.063	

TABLE 3

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS

VARIABLES	COEFFICIENTS	
	No College	College
CONSTANT	-138.00	-160.29
TUITION	.026	.026
INCOME	-6.22E-6	-1.53E-6
HALF-TIME	2.23	2.77
FULL-TIME	2.56	2.67
NEVER MARRIED	-2.36	-1.26
EX MARRIED	-.56	.14
PRIOR EDUCATION	18.20	19.62
AGE	.39	.34
NONWHITE	2.45	2.79
CITY	.90	1.17
SUBURBAN	1.75	2.00
N	16330	

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APPENDIX

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Ordinary least squares was selected as the best multivariable statistical technique in the current analysis on two criteria: computational feasibility and ease of interpretation. OLS coefficients can be interpreted as changes in the conditional probabilities of women going to college with changes in one independent variable, other factors held constant. Using OLS, tests of statistical significance can be performed on each coefficient, as well as on the equation as a whole.

There are, however, some problems in using OLS when estimating a binary choice model. First, the assumption of homoskedasticity is violated: the values of the error terms depend on values of the x variables. With no other specification errors, using OLS results in estimates which are inefficient. Also, as in any linear regression technique, if the functional relationship is not truly linear, estimates will be biased.

There are two statistical techniques which are commonly used with binary choice models: logit and probit analyses. These techniques use maximum likelihood estimators. Either logit or probit may be a more appropriate technique to use in the current analysis. The current data set presents another problem- the college enrollment rate of women 25 and over is well under 5%. This poses computational difficulties when using standard logit or probit programs, which are sensitive to very low or high probabilities of the dependent variable. Although statistically appropriate, logit or probit estimation procedures may not yield a feasible solution.

Another multivariate technique which can be used for predictions in binary choice models is discriminant analysis. Since discriminant scores can take any value, the dependent variable is no longer binary. The values of the discriminant

coefficients, however, have no specific meaning in terms of conditional probabilities, nor do the discriminant scores have any analytically meaningful value. Also, using discriminant analysis, statistical tests cannot be performed on individual coefficients. On these grounds, OLS was selected over discriminant analysis.

To see whether our results were sensitive to the statistical technique selected, a discriminant analysis was also performed. Table 3 shows the results of the discriminant analysis performed on all women in the sample. (Statistical tests were not performed, since we are only interested in comparing coefficients). The OLS results are confirmed.

Coefficients on HALF-TIME, FULL-TIME, NEVER MARRIED, EX-MARRIED, PRIOR EDUCATION, NON-WHITE, CITY and SUBURBAN are higher for those going to college than for those not going to college. Also, as hypothesized, the discriminant coefficient for the age variable is greater to classify women as non-students. Coefficients on tuition are equal for both discriminant functions, indicating that tuition is not an important factor in determining college attendance. Finally, the coefficient on income is higher in the discriminant function for women in college, indicating a positive relationship between income and college attendance.